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THE CARE OF THE SKIN AND HAIR

JAMES STARTIN, M.R.C.S.



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THE
CARE OF THE SKIN AND HAIR.

THE CARE OF THE SKIN & HAIR:

CONTAINING SUGGESTIONS AS TO
DIET, CLOTHING, BATHING AND COSMETICS.

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BRISTOL: JOHN WRIGHT & CO.
LONDON: SIMPKIN, MARSHALL, HAMILTON, KENT & CO., LTD

1902



JOHN WRIGHT AND CO.,
PRINTERS AND PUBLISHERS, BRISTOL.

27.C.31

P R E F A C E.

I HAVE published this small treatise at the desire of many friends. Principally compiled from several lectures and papers I have read in the last few years, with the hope that it may interest them in the various suggestions as to rules of diet, etc., to retain a clear Skin and Complexion.

JAMES STARTIN.

15, HARLEY STREET, W.

*Le premier objete de la Médicin chez
les anciens étoile de prevenir les maladies.*



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THE CARE OF THE SKIN AND HAIR.

CHAPTER I.

A Healthy Skin.

THE charm of a clear, healthy skin, and its usual accompaniment, a fine complexion, is universally acknowledged. Together they form one of the chief elements of beauty, and those who are endowed by nature with these beneficent gifts are indeed favoured ; but if they wish to retain this beauty, they should give it their especial care.

From the earliest period to the present time never was there an era when women did not try to make themselves beautiful.

The care of the complexion is further a duty which every woman owes to herself, and all parents owe to their children. Regularity of feature and a perfect development of form are of little avail if the complexion be not good.

In fact, the complexion is the chief charm of beauty in the British race, for what finer complexions in the world do we see than those of our own countrywomen?

Many people grow careless of their appearance after a certain time of life; no doubt the cares and troubles and worry in the race of life have something to do with this. We should be, therefore, careful to bear our cares and troubles with a healthy mind, and if we wish to preserve the beauty of our complexion, should take far more care in our modes of life and daily food.

More than 2,000 years ago Xenophon wrote, "Men regarded a genuine complexion as most pleasing."



It is a very common public error to regard all disorders of the skin as contagious. Quite frequently servants and workpeople turn aside and avoid anyone in the same service if affected in this way.

Numbers of poor girls are thus driven into any institution or skin hospital to which they can gain admission, owing to this most undeserved and unwarrantable prejudice.

Men-servants also suffer too often by this uncalled-for avoidance. The vicinity or

even the bare mention of skin diseases seems to upset the equanimity of some people—especially nervous, weak-minded individuals. But let me reassure them. Few eruptions of the skin are really contagious, and those that are, hardly ever come to be seen by the public in an actual condition of contagiousness.



If any further inducement were needed to urge us to the consideration of so important a subject as the care of the skin, it might be found in the risks attending an invasion of those terrible and devastating diseases, Asiatic cholera and small-pox. Nothing that we can do is so likely to preserve us from these dire diseases—and, indeed, from every disease of an epidemic or contagious kind—as a proper and judicious care of the skin.

The instructions laid down by our Sanitary Boards for securing our country against those diseases are happily good. They contain recommendations having reference to the maintenance of the skin in a state of cleanliness, warmth, and health; and it is only by a knowledge of the nature and functions of the skin that we can safely hope to completely succeed in effecting this object. Fortunately,

if there is one characteristic which distinguishes an English man or woman, it is the almost universal habit of cleanliness—the “love of the tub.” Of this I purpose speaking later on.

The conditions of life in which we live, as a highly civilised nation, exert a powerful influence upon the structures which combine to make up our organism, but perhaps their influence is most plainly seen upon the skin. A proper care of the skin is an important factor in the prevention of most cutaneous disorders. The health of the skin is much the same as the health of the body. We may try to define health, if we can, but it is indefinable. “It is that state of our bodies in which the functions go on without our notice or observation, and in which existence is felt to be a pleasure; in which it is a kind of joy to see, to touch, and to live.” This is health as nearly as it can be described. Yet the skin is apt to be quite disregarded, and by the majority of the community less attended to than any other organ of the body. It should not be considered as a mere covering to defend us from the effects of heat or cold, but as one of the most important organs of our body, without the constant activity and agency of which we must look for neither health nor long life. In the neglect of the

skin in modern times lies the secret source of numberless diseases and evils that tend to shorten our existence. From whatever cause they result, the morbid phenomena of eruptions of the skin show themselves at all periods of life, in every rank, and in every condition of civilisation. But it is the working classes of the community who are mostly exposed to their influence, and consequently it is mostly amongst the poor that the greater number of these diseases are found.



The artisan in his several trades finds a fruitful source of skin disease in the dust and dirt in which he labours, often very irritating, and from which he cannot, or can very imperfectly, protect himself, unless he gives up that employment which furnishes his daily bread. Not only the artisan, but drapers, grocers, dyers, bakers, skin-dressers, and other traders find that their assistants occasionally suffer by absorbing the dust from their trades into the skin.

It would appear at first sight that skin eruptions in ancient times were either more frequent, or that the disgust with which they were regarded had a greater influence on the community at large than is at present

the case. At the period of the establishment of our royal hospitals (St. Bartholomew, Bethlehem, and Bridewell), the leper, as the unfortunate individual was called, who was afflicted with a skin eruption, had a place allotted to himself, "*to keepe him out of ye citie.*" He was in a manner confined to a district, beyond the bounds of which he dared not venture under the penalty of death; indeed, so severe was the law in such cases (leprosy having been held one of the five plagues under the Sanitary Code in most European countries, and I believe in our own), that anyone convicted of having had communication with a leper rendered his life a forfeit to the State. Common sense in modern times, however, has long since exploded the belief that the affection called leprosy is contagious in temperate climates. After the Crusades every disease of the skin became an object of suspicion, without discrimination or even a cursory inquiry into its nature. Under the general denomination of lepers thousands of helpless wretches, whose only crime was poverty, were condemned to noisome imprisonment and banishment from all ties of friendship and kinship. At that time the number of lazarettos in Europe amounted to 21,000;

and we read that in Paris, in the façade in such a building, a gibbet was erected for such as dared either to enter or escape without permission.

It may be interesting to state that the site of St. James's Palace was anciently occupied by one of these leper-houses, and that the parks adjacent formed part of the domain from which it derived its support, until Henry the Eighth, in his kingly wisdom, converted this ancient charity into the palace. Such was the charitable care of the suffering community in ancient times, and so judiciously and effectually carried on by King Edward VII and Queen Alexandra at the present time in the establishment of sanatoria for consumptives and the electric light and Röntgen ray treatment for diseases of the skin. It is only within the last few years that special notice has been taken of these diseases by medical men, and special hospitals and special departments in hospitals established for their alleviation. As regards animals, horses and dogs, the most ignorant person knows, that proper care of the skin is indispensably necessary for the maintenance of their health. For if animals become meagre and their coats dull, the first thought is whether there is not some neglect or want

of care in combing them or attending to them. Such a simple idea, however, seldom occurs to the parent with regard to his children.



The skin is the greatest medium for purifying our bodies. Every moment of our lives a multitude of useless, corrupted, and worn-out particles evaporate through its numerous small openings in an unperceived manner. This evaporation is inseparably connected with our lives and the circulation of our blood, and by it the greater part of the impurities of our bodies are removed. If, therefore, the skin be inactive and its pores be stopped up, an acridity and corruption of the juices will be the inevitable consequence, and most dangerous diseases may ensue.



Should superfluous hairs grow on the female face, no efforts are wanting to endeavour to effect their removal, but, unfortunately, their temporary abolition does not involve the destruction of the hair bulbs or organs producing them, and consequently they grow again. Scientific aid has at last come to the relief of hirsute women, and it has been found that continuous appli-

cation of what are known as the X- or Röntgen rays, with the occasional assistance of electrolysis, a variety of electrical action, has the effect of destroying the hair bulbs, and consequently acting as a depilatory. To the profession using the Röntgen rays for the purpose of obtaining photographs of broken or dislocated bones and of metallic objects in the interior of the body, this property has been for some time familiar, the hairs on the hands of the operators when exposed continually to these rays having been noticed to become less abundant. It is only comparatively recently that this power has been investigated.

I have already published cases treated at the London Skin Hospital, Fitzroy-square, which have come under my care, in which the Röntgen rays have been effectual. The use of the Röntgen rays requires to be regulated with great exactness by a scientific and medical operator. If the treatment is too severe, inflammation of the skin ensues, causing considerable disfigurement, and needing careful medical treatment. I recorded the case of a girl of twenty-three years of age, the hairs from whose face completely disappeared after thirty exposures, and since then several others, with more or less exposures.

The treatment is not painful or even dis-

agreeable. The parts of the face to be protected from the action of the Röntgen rays are covered by a leaden mask, and the rays are only allowed to play upon the part of the skin that is affected.

There is no doubt that, like all matters connected with personal adornment, this treatment will come into the hands of unqualified quacks, and much injury may be done to patients who put themselves in their hands. We would therefore strongly advise all those who contemplate the employment of these means to have recourse only to perfectly qualified medical men who are skilled in this matter.

Besides those dire diseases of the skin, lupus, cancer, rodent ulcer, etc., for which so much has now been done by both Light and X-ray treatment, amongst a certain class of women there is a distinct tendency to the assumption of masculine attributes. There is, however, one very prominent masculine attribute which, strange to say, they do not affect, namely, the growth of hirsutes on the face.



The soft, yielding texture forming the external covering of our bodies, well known

by common designation as the skin, though apparently one membrane of complex structure, in reality consists throughout its whole extent of three layers, which, besides performing the important office of protecting the parts beneath from injury, constitute at the same time the seat of the sense of touch, and the organ of sensible and insensible perspiration ; and we are here reminded of the expressive lines of Pope :—

"In human works, though laboured on with pain,
A thousand movements scarce one purpose gain ;
In God's, one single can its end produce,
Yet serves to second, too, some other use."

The apparatus for cutaneous absorption, imbibition, as it is called more properly, the three layers, furnish also a locality for innumerable glands or bulbs, producing hair, and everywhere covering the body, adding so much to its softness and grace ; a class of little cavities, which secrete the unctuous matters to lubricate the skin, called the sebaceous glands, and, finally, for the sudoriparous or perspiratory glands.



Yet, with so great a variety of offices and parts, the extent and services of this interesting membrane are not confined to the outer

surface only, for the skin is found to be continued inwards at all the openings of the body, and to become the mucous membrane of the mouth, nose, throat, lungs, and stomach; so that the cutaneous surface may be said, like a circle, to have neither beginning nor end, but forms one beautiful investing membrane for the whole body, inside and out, which so admirably accommodates its services to the various parts, that perhaps no structure could be imagined more illustrative of Divine arrangement, by combining unity of purpose and design with diversity of functional offices, and so gracefully adapting itself to the different and varied movements of the body, without wrinkle or inequality, as to have furnished Burke, in his essay on the "Sublime and Beautiful," with one of his happiest illustrations.



Though the skin is so surprisingly yielding and delicate, it is well constituted to resist external agencies, which property is marvelously increased by education or habit; to the horny palm of the smith, for example, the dewdrop and the red-hot metal prove nearly equally innocuous in their action.

Yet so wonderfully sensitive is the organ

of touch in the skin that in the blind, deaf, and dumb it has furnished a medium of communication which in minuteness of perception has nearly rivalled, while it affords a substitute for, the lost senses.

Whilst thus the skin may be said to connect each of us with the external world, it affords at the same time the safeguard and protection of the parts within, offering, according to their several necessities, great density of texture for a shield or defence, as before instanced in the hands and feet, or a delicate and wonderful tenacity, as on the lips, where exquisiteness of sensation constitutes the prominent function to be developed.

The ends of the fingers may here perhaps present themselves as seeming exceptions to this statement, but when we speak of the anatomical arrangements of the skin we shall at once perceive increased cause for and wonder at the contrivance for admitting free exercise of the sense of touch in parts so thickly covered by cuticle.



Of the three layers or divisions of the skin the *first*, or outermost, that which meets the eye, is the scarf-skin, the cuticle or epidermis; the *second*, in which the colouring matter of

the different human races is deposited, is called the rete-mucosum, or malpighi (after its discoverer, Malpighii); and the *third* is called the true skin, the cutis vera, dermis, or chorion.

The cuticle, when separated by a blister or other means from the living body, is found in all races of men, blacks as well as whites, to be a diaphanous, elastic, white, or greyish-white membrane, rather darker, however, in the negro races, and, from the grooves intersecting it, apparently reticulated, the outer surface being somewhat convex and polished from the oily matter thrown out upon it by the sebaceous glands or follicles, the inner surface concave, rough, and irregular, an appearance which, if regarded with slight magnifying power, is found to arise from numerous small points or processes like the pile of coarse velvet; these are the hollow, tube-like continuations of the cuticle, dipping into the pores and inequalities of the rete-mucosum, the second membrane of the skin, and into the true skin or dermis. The third membrane, as it were, forms the medium of communication between all those parts and channels through which the hairs and sebaceous and sweat-ducts pass, each of these minute tubes or processes being like an

inverted finger of a glove, the duct, hair, etc., perforating its apex something after that manner.

By a beautiful provision of nature the cuticle may be said to be a sort of varnish, perfectly insensible, which protects the more delicate parts of the skin and the organ of touch from injury.



Were our bodies without this covering, not only might any noxious weed we crush in our progress produce lethal effects, but we could scarcely perform the common offices of life without risk. This protecting membrane daily and hourly exerts its preservative influence; with this safeguard one may handle with impunity not only deadly poisons, but sources of contagion themselves.

Thus we see the advantage, nay the necessity to our well-being, of bearing about with us an inanimate exterior, and can admire the wonderful wisdom of the Creator in this external adaptation of our bodies to the world without.

We now come to the question, What is the soundest state or condition of the skin, or that which most contributes to it? and in its turn indicates a high state of health.

It does not depend upon whether the person is of sanguine or bilious temperament, of ruddy or sallow complexion, but whether the skin exercises its functions in a proper manner. I will now endeavour to show you how it may.



CHAPTER II.

Proper Rules of Management and Diet.

THE conditions necessary to maintain the skin in a sound and healthy state, to restore it when disordered, to second our efforts when engaged in treating some of the many eruptions to which it is liable, may be classed under three heads:—

(1) That the body should be, if possible, well and judiciously nourished.

(2) That no undue tax or strain should be put upon the skin.

(3) That the skin be put under proper rules of management as to general hygienic surroundings, diet, clothing, and exercise.

The more exercise we take in the open air the better for our complexions; we, especially ladies, do not take half enough.

In the first place, our food is in a double manner a source of warmth, by supplying the material requisite to balance the continual waste going on in the body, and, secondly, by conveying into the system those elements

which by their chemical composition engender heat. To ensure these results our food must be wholesome and sufficient, and must combine all the varieties, animal and vegetable, which are bestowed upon us, *viz.*, the aqueous, the albuminous, the saccharine, and the oleaginous. The first is necessary, and enters largely into the component parts of our body ; the second, from our animal food ; the third, from the vegetable ; and the fourth, from both the latter. Let me here give a good maxim : “*Happy is the man who only eats when he is hungry, and drinks when he is thirsty.*”

The periods of taking food usually adopted in our country, in accordance with convenience and recurrence of hunger, are those which are best suited for the purpose of health, *viz.*, the morning meal, the mid-day meal, and the evening meal.

The morning meal, or breakfast, should be taken between 8 and 9 ; the mid-day meal, the dinner of our forefathers, the second breakfast of the French, the lunch of fashionable life, is generally, and should be, taken between 1 and 2 o'clock ; and the evening meal, the supper of our forefathers, the dinner of the present day in fashionable society, between 8 and 9 o'clock.

Among the ancient Greeks the three meals of the day were called the "ariston," the first, or morning meal, taken at sunrise; the "deipnon," the chief meal, dinner; and the "dorpon," the evening or sunset meal, supper.

The Athenians took meals as the French, and they called them "ariston" and "deipnon," excluding the "dorpon," and sometimes the "ariston" was regarded as luncheon, the "prandium" of the Romans.

As regards the quantity of food to be taken, at all times, no doubt, it is best to err on the side of moderation, and I have no hesitation *in condemning too great a variety at a single meal, however much variation of diet may be useful.* A variety of dishes is simply an injurious device for overloading the stomach.



Before I commence referring to special articles of food, let me urge the great importance of regularity of meals and the taking of sufficient time to eat them. Upon this rule depends to a great extent our health. Irregularity in this respect produces indigestion, flushing of the skin, and one of the most disfiguring eruptions, and that on the face. All red faces and red noses do not

proceed from strong drink, though many undoubtedly do.

The diet for any one who suffers with an eruption should be fairly good. Above all, the day should be commenced with a substantial breakfast of light food, but not with hot roast meats, as is the custom of many people in England. The stomach is at this time unable to digest them. Fish, boiled bacon, eggs occasionally, fruit, cocoa or cocoatina, coffee for some, tea for some (for few persons are able to digest the same things). Many take porridge, but my experience shows me it cannot be eaten regularly, south of the Tweed. It is much too heating in the south of England; indeed, I have seen eruptions caused by it, especially among children.

Now, milk is a mixture of the four staminal principles of food. In it, therefore, we expect to find a model of what an alimentary substance ought to be. Some cannot digest milk; then I recommend them to take aerated water with it. It forms a very suitable portion of our daily food. Coffee, if properly made, is a wholesome beverage, but it must be properly made. The berries, of two or three kinds, should be freshly roasted and ground, and thoroughly boiling water passed through the powder before it is

required. Those who know this must be well aware how vastly different it is to the stuff called coffee, as it is bought, more often than not, mixed with that wretched drug, chicory. If tea be preferred, it should be made with some variety of pure black Ceylon, India, or China tea, not green. *A correct infusion is made by pouring boiling water upon the tea and allowing it to stand for from two to five minutes at the most.*

Tea is not good for all, especially the dyspeptic ; and some teas are so loaded with starch that when allowed to stand a few minutes they are like thin arrowroot. Do not take tea too often. Many people I know take a cupful in the morning first thing, then two or three at breakfast, sometimes again at lunch, and three or four or even more at tea-time. Can you expect ever to have good digestions or complexions if you do this ? For solids, variety is best—not eggs and bacon, bacon and eggs, every morning, or eggs alone, as they are too bilious to take regularly. Take fish (not kippered fish) one morning, boiled bacon another ; this latter is almost as good as cod-liver oil to weak persons.

Now the business man and the busy professional man should always make a good break-

fast or he will soon pay the penalty with bad digestion. And let me say a word to those who ride daily into cities by trains. *Do not hurry or run to catch a train the first thing in the morning; this is one of the worst things we can do before our machinery is set in motion.* I have seen two or three fatal consequences take place solely as a result of doing this, besides thousands of cases where it has caused acute indigestion and rough skins. Another thing: the fashionable lady who gets up from her dinner table at ten o'clock, and often eats but little during the time she spends at the ball or reception, often until three and four o'clock in the morning, must not expect to keep her complexion.



A fair amount of meat should be taken, but never in excess. The people of England are accustomed to eat *far too much beef and mutton without variation*, which only stimulates the skin to gross and unhealthy action and appearance. Servants in well-to-do families, where much meat is consumed, make good patients to the doctors. All rich and heating foods and acid courses taken in excess, such as roast pork, salt beef, veal, jugged hare,

many soups, badly-cooked pastry, shell-fish, new cheese, raw vegetables, dried fruits, sweetmeats, should be studiously avoided by those who have any tendency to eruptions ; but even in health the skin often becomes red and irritable after such things.

We should take a more mixed and vegetable diet ; vegetarians possess the finest complexions of any people in the world ; not that I advocate vegetarian diet in itself alone. The tendency, as I said before, is to take too much red meat, and too often. We should take far more vegetable diet than we do, and more *fish—that essential nerve and brain-supplying food*—wholesome unadulterated bread, whole-meal bread and brown bread, once-cooked meat, potatoes well cooked, all sorts of green vegetables, marrows, celery, tomatoes, leeks, rice, farinaceous food, beans, peas, and light puddings of all kinds.

No person can expect to have a nice complexion who eats meat, beef and mutton day by day without variation.



My attention has of late been frequently drawn to the fact, in my practice, that very many disfigurements of the skin are entirely due to taking intoxicating drinks *to excess*,

and that, too, amongst all ranks of society. Sixty per cent. of the inmates of our lunatic asylums are victims to this direful influence ; and there are 1,000,000 paupers in our workhouses and elsewhere, and plenty ready to follow them, solely through *excess* in drink. I find more than 60 per cent of the dreadful cases of eruption in my hospital are either brought about by its influence, or those eruptions that are either inherited or acquired are influenced most injuriously by *its abuse*. Alcohol has a direct specific action upon the nervous system, the circulatory system, and so upon the skin ; and being a most active generator of heat, has its evil influences on the capillary circulation, *i.e.*, the surface circulation. Do we not see it in the red nose and face of the drunkard, though, as I said before, not all people with red noses are necessarily drunkards.

If, instead of the vile concoctions called spirits, and that wretched stuff which is sold as ale to our working classes *scarcely ever* unadulterated, we could prevail upon them to take less intoxicating drinks, how little we doctors should have to do ? This advice applies to the upper as well as the lower ranks of society. A young American medical man, who had just come from the

medical schools of Germany, visiting the practice of my hospital, told me that in the whole course of his three years' study and residence in Germany he never saw a drunken man or woman in the streets, or a woman enter a public-house.



The late Sir Andrew Clark said : " Is it possible that the teaching of science or the dignity of our profession, any more than the calls of patriotism, humanity, love to our neighbour, morality, and religion can prove that we are wrong when we advise those who come in contact with us, as patients or in other capacities, to abstain from the poisonous and excessive pernicious use of alcoholic drinks ? "

I venture to say that there is a certain joy of existence—a sense in which one feels what a pleasure it is to look, for instance, upon green fields and happy birds, to hear pleasant sounds, to touch pleasant hands, to know that life is a satisfaction. *This is a state which, in my opinion, is always injured in some way or other by excess in alcoholic drinking.* This is a state in which, sooner or later, the music goes out of tune, as regards its influence upon the health of

our skin. Perfectly good health will, in my opinion, invariably be injured by alcohol—hurt in the sense of its perfection and loveliness. The complexion soon loses its bloom and the countenance its cheerfulness.



CHAPTER III.

Cosmetics.

A HEALTHY and clear skin should be, and generally is, the first aim of every man and woman, and a point in connection with its care demands remark. It is the employment of cosmetics or powders for the complexion : are they harmful or not ? This, in my opinion, depends entirely upon the nature of the applications employed. *Many of the lotions and drugs used and advertised for the skin contain harmful and positively injurious substances*, and I have seen numbers of instances where acne and other diseases have been caused by them.

Cosmetics may be defined as substances which are intended for application to the skin with a view to improving its appearance. However they may be prepared, whether as washes, powders, or pastes, they carry out their objects in some of the following ways : By concealing an offending eruption or pimple or some cutaneous affection, or hiding a coarse skin or some local injury or scar ; and frequently they are used, not

with the object of hiding any blemish at all, but merely to add an artificial colour to the complexion, or a whiteness to the neck, arms, or hands.



The Romans and Greeks appear to have been possessed of the power to enhance their personal charms with many and various "blooms" and cosmetics. Many years ago a list was published of the various perfumes that they used on such occasions: mint for the arms, palm-oil for the cheeks and breast, marjoram for the eyebrows and hair, and ground ivy for the neck. History relates that the French then became the most renowned perfumers in the world, inasmuch as it is told that Diana of Poictiers preserved her complexion to a good old age; and Anne of Austria, too, introduced a wonderful cream, which was used to whiten the hands and shoulders. In England we are mainly indebted to the patronage of Queen Elizabeth for the introduction of cosmetics.

There are some skins which are tender and fine, and which may be prevented from becoming rough and broken by the occasional dusting on of some simple powder, such as starch powder, French chalk, or talc, with

the addition of a little calamine powder or boracic acid.



I emphatically condemn all powders which contain preparations of mercury, bismuth, arsenic, or lead, so often used by ladies of the present day. Such powders, when used to impart a bloom to the face (on which much gaiety, hot rooms, late hours, ices, stimulants, or sedatives, show their mark), are undoubtedly injurious.

The skin is a beautiful but delicate membrane. It is easily injured by numerous causes, acting from within and without, and requires to be carefully guarded against many injurious influences. With a little knowledge and a little trouble the existing beauty of the skin may be made more enduring, and the natural defects so far subdued and ameliorated that practically they cease to exist.

Perhaps some of the commonest of the minor disfigurements of the skin are the small black spots, or comedones, which appear on the surface. These are accompanied with redness and flushings. They are seated below the scarf-skin, and in the surface of the true skin, and are due to con-

gestion of the sebaceous follicles. The pallid or sallow complexion, so often seen, is similarly caused by a weak and insufficient action of the small vessels of the pores. All who take much interest in the preservation of the skin should consider that its health and beauty mainly depend upon the cleanliness and free action of these transpiratory pores. If these become choked up, and charged with foreign matter, it is obvious that the regular functions of the skin cannot be fulfilled, and the result must, sooner or later, show itself in an accumulation of black specks or deposits in the mouths of the glands.

It is important, therefore, in all derangements of the skin, to lose no time in the application of suitable remedial treatment, as certain morbid conditions thus produced soon lead to the formation of coarseness and wrinkles, which when once produced are difficult to remove.



Wrinkles, of all the enemies of a good appearance, are viewed with the greatest apprehension, and they are caused by a diminution of the fatty particles of which the skin is partly composed, especially under the eyes and at the corners of the mouth.

When this subcutaneous fat diminishes, the skin begins to fall into lines, and loses its smooth and even surface. No time should be lost in counteracting this alarming tendency, by the application of certain astringent preparations, or by massage or rubbing the wrinkles and the adjoining skin. This should be practised daily for a short time, and after a while much may be done to restore the smooth surface of the skin, and a more youthful appearance.



Freckles, though not so injurious to the complexion as wrinkles, are yet very destructive of a good appearance. They are, as we mostly know, caused by exposure to the sun and wind, and are not constitutional or permanent when carefully treated.

We then have the pale, clammy, and greasy skin. This is a very unpleasant and inconvenient defect. It is due to an abnormal distension of the sebaceous and sudoriparous glands of the skin. This disfigurement may also be relieved by suitable treatment, massage, electricity, etc.

CHAPTER IV.

Clothing.

NOW, with regard to clothing. Next in importance to a judicious and rational diet, as a means of maintaining the health and temperature of the body, is the raiment —the clothes we wear. There is a common and very popular error, that of putting too many clothes on our bodies. No man or woman's skin can be kept thoroughly clean and healthy who puts too much clothing on his or her back or hips. It is a fact that clothing in itself has no property of bestowing heat, but is chiefly useful in preventing the dispersion of the temperature of the body, and in some instances in defending it from the atmosphere. This power of preserving heat is due to the same principle, whatever form the raiment may assume, whether the natural covering of birds or animals, or whether the most beautiful and elegant tissues of human manufacture. In every case it is the power which coverings possess of detaining in their meshes atmospheric air, that is the cause of their warmth.

All clothing should be such as shall permit free transpiration from the skin, and also convey the transpired fluids from the surface; otherwise cold, irritation of the skin, and other bad consequences follow. And everyone is practically aware that a loose dress is much warmer than one which fits tightly. The explanation is obvious: the loose dress encloses a thin stratum of air, which the tight dress is incapable of doing. The maxim, therefore, is that we should not wear our clothes too tight. I notice many ladies of the present day and present fashion do so; but they will find what I say true whenever really cold weather comes. They not only lace themselves in too tightly, but wear too tight and too pointed-toed boots and shoes. If they only knew how serious a matter it is—destroying their lives and displacing all their internal organs, causing pale, sallow complexions, and with a pointed-toed tight shoe utterly destroying the shape of the foot in a few years.

Those whose skins are able to bear it, find wool or flannel is the best material to wear next the skin, never red flannel, by reason of its absorbing and heat-retaining properties. For those who cannot, fine linen is best. As outer clothing, woollen stuffs are by far the

best, preserving the heat longer than other materials. There is scarcely any organ of the body that may not be affected by undue or irregular action excited in some portion of the surface circulation of the skin ; how necessary, therefore, it is for our health's sake, as well as our skin, that we should be most careful what we put on.

I notice that veils are far too much worn by ladies of the present day. They often conceal, but *do not preserve* a good complexion.



Now, as regards colour, especially in clothes that are worn next the skin. It is remarkable to note the influence which colour exerts over our clothing, as modifying its power to preserve warmth. It is a known fact that dark colours absorb more light and more of the sun's rays than those of a lighter shade. Dark colours are good radiators of heat, and their conducting power varies according to the nature of their material. White reflects the rays of the sun, consequently it returns the heat ; it is therefore well adapted for summer wear.

But do people always study the colour of their clothing for purposes of comfort ? I think not.

It is the fashion, no doubt, that is answerable for the colour and materials of the dress of the present day. No matter how outrageous the colour or how injurious to the skin or disagreeable to comfort ; if it be fashionable or orthodox no other apology is necessary. No laws are so blindly obeyed as the dictates of fashion amongst a certain class of people, especially amongst those " who are striving to get on in the world," as *Punch* has it. Fashion has decreed that men and women shall wear bright-coloured socks, and coloured stockings, coloured gloves, coloured chest flannels, coloured neckties, coloured vests, coloured underclothing of all kinds ; and so great is the demand for these bright colours in the present day, that the supply must necessarily be great ; and I venture to state that manufacturers of dyes and dyers are not sufficiently careful in making use of injurious or poisonous ingredients in their dyes, or what injurious matter is employed to fix those dyes.



Let us note some of the inconveniences which are known, and have been known from time immemorial, by medical men to have origin in the material or chemical pigments with which these things are dyed. *Red flannel* when worn

next the skin has been frequently the cause of serious inflammation, which has without doubt resulted from the use of colouring matter made by processes derived from coal-tar dyes, commonly called aniline dyes, amongst which are reds, blues, and magentas of much beauty. During the last few years articles of dress, especially those worn next the skin, stockings, gloves, drawers, and other underclothing, have been dyed with colours derived from these coal-tar dyes, and as long as they are worn externally they produce no impression save admiration, but this application to articles of dress such as named above, and worn in contact with the body, has shown that they are capable of producing inflammation, irritation, and eruptions of the skin, and in some instances, severe constitutional disturbance. Many of these aniline dyes, as they are called, are derived from benzole and other products of coal-tar, from which are obtained reds, blues, and magentas, some of which and their mordants, when brought into contact with the skin by means of perspiration, act as powerful irritants, more in some instances than others. The dye or its mordant is soluble in the perspiration, and hence it becomes absorbed into the skin. Some of

the magenta dyes also contain arsenic, that compound being used in their preparation. It sometimes happens, as in one of the cases shown by myself at the International Health Exhibition, that the colour and pattern of the stockings is transferred to the skin, and is represented by lines and figures of inflammation. This inflammation is sometimes propagated to different parts of the body in the same individual, and is often of a severe and intense character, and still greater annoyance often results by reason of its recurrence after the skin has apparently recovered. It is a strange fact, I or my confreres never had a case brought to us in which the dye was proved to be vegetable, but invariably mineral; whether it is the dye or the mordant used to fix it, matters not if it causes injury. *Why should we wear anything that is likely to cause injury?*



CHAPTER V.

Baths and Bathing.

IF there is one thing we English pride ourselves upon more than another, it is upon the fact that we do more bathing than any other nation in the wide world.

But to the casual eye the subject is a pardonable one, that of looking at the fact with pride; but if we examine the position more carefully, we shall find our self-satisfaction is a little premature.

In these days, when the arts and sciences in their daily advancement multiply the comforts and resources of existence, it would in truth be a cause of wonder if so essential a means of prolonging and maintaining the vigour of life should have been neglected as is presented by efficient public bathing establishments, where the fatigued working man or woman may gratuitously, or for a small sum, relieve themselves of the evidences of labour. At the present time more attention, I am glad to say, is being paid to the subject in London and several large towns; but there is much room for improvement. Public

baths, especially swimming baths, are being slowly established here and there; and it may fairly be calculated that these baths so built will end in restoring those sources of healthy enjoyment so well and justly prized by our ancestors.



I may here observe that the origin and use of baths and bathing can be traced to the most remote antiquity, and were probably suggested to the ancient inhabitants of the world by the various mineral and thermal springs which are found in most countries. Thus we are told by Boreas, who wrote on the subject 300 years ago, that every ancient nation of whom we have records employed baths as one of the most powerful agents in the preservation of health and the removal of disease, and indeed with reason, for experience has failed to supply a remedy of greater efficacy on the human economy than a judicious administration of heat and cold. If we look back to the days of fable and allegory, we find it affirmed that the first baths were consecrated to Hercules, and that Minerva prepared a vapour bath to refresh this hero after his extraordinary labours. Homer sung the praises of the bath in his *Odyssey*. Hippocrates, the father of

medicine, has also not failed to add admiration to establishments that were then becoming more common and useful. Plutarch and Josephus have left descriptions of the baths which adorned the towns in which they dwelt. From the testimony of Pliny we learn that the first public baths of the Romans were constructed in the year 444 B.C. by Appius Claudius. These baths have preserved a character of simplicity and solidity in perfect harmony with the manners of the day. The historian Justin mentions the fact of the importation of baths into Germany, Gaul, and Britain, and vestiges of these establishments in the vicinity of Roman remains scattered over this country vouch for the accuracy of his statement, whilst, spectre-like, they furnish silent reproof of the modern neglect of a sanitary practice to which our ancestors attached so much importance. The Romans in the time of the Emperor Augustus, according to the reports of Vitruvius and Mercurialis, attached gymnasia, or places appropriated to public games, to their baths, and later the Emperors Nero, Vespasian, and Titus gave these edifices so much magnificence that it was observed they were more calculated to convey the glory of their founders to posterity than to

prove of public utility. Indeed, to so great an extent had luxury and licentiousness usurped the natural and salutary purposes of public baths in the Roman Empire, particularly in Rome itself, that the early Fathers of the church anathematised their use in the strongest terms, both in their discourses and in the Council of Laodicea, yet without subverting their abuses, which perhaps contributed in no small degree to the overthrow of that queen among nations, by the luxury, licentiousness, and effeminacy which they engendered.

It is sincerely to be hoped that such a state of things may never again disgrace institutions so preservative in health and curative in disease as those we advocate; but it must be recollected that those institutions could contain their thousands of bathers at the same time, each bath being separate from the other, and that it was the practice of all ranks to bathe daily. Thus the baths of Dioclesius in Rome are said to have accommodated three thousand bathers, with a degree of luxury which to modern ideas would appear gorgeous in the extreme. After the dismemberment of the Roman Empire, baths were again introduced into Europe from the East, where they held,

and still hold, a rank second only in importance to the mosques. In Spain the Moors, under Abu-Bekr, revived them, with nearly their original splendour, and from that country they extended through France and Germany. Borrow, in his delightful book, "The Bible in Spain," thus describes the once celebrated baths of Lugo, the ancient Roman-Spanish capital : "One evening I visited the baths, accompanied by my friend the bookseller. They had been built over warm springs, which flow into the river Minho. Notwithstanding their ruinous condition, they were crowded with sick, hoping to derive benefit from the waters, which are still famed for their sanatory power. These people exhibited a strange spectacle, as, wrapped in their flannel gowns, they lay immersed in tepid waters, amongst disjointed stones and overhung with reek and steam."

In modern times the Russians, among Europeans, may be said to regard bathing as a moral as well as a physical duty. Thus amid the frozen deserts of the north we find each town, village, or hamlet possess its suite of baths, however humble, located on the margin of some neighbouring lake, river, brook, or fountain. Nor are these advantages confined to this portion of Europe alone, as nearly

every town of second or third-rate importance in France, Italy, and Germany furnishes its inhabitants the luxury and healthful recreation or remedy of one or more efficient bathing establishments, accessible to the poor as well as to the rich.

In the United Kingdom only, amongst the nations of Europe, are we only just waking up to find so useful a provision in health and disease. It may be asked with reason, therefore, should this be the case?

Is it that the beneficial experience of ages in so many countries and climates is not regarded? Or have the speculations and genius of our learned men and medical authorities been directed to more abstruse objects of practical knowledge? The answer, it is feared, will be found in the indifference, nay, often absolute opposition, with which the British public too commonly meets individual efforts for its benefit. So accustomed are we to regard every new measure as a mere excuse for personal aggrandisement that we commonly denounce the author and repudiate his recommendation.

In no single instance has this statement been more conclusively verified than in London, so little attention being paid to appeals for means for the purpose made by

men who are endeavouring to put before the public these great advantages.

We are living in a time when the race for life is sharp, and sedentary occupations or over-indulgence in artificial habits of life indispose us for active physical exertion. It may, therefore, be taken for granted that appropriate bathing and physical exercises are two of the greatest safeguards against disease, especially of a zymotic character. The question suggests itself, cannot we re-acquire the immunity we are told the ancients enjoyed in this respect? We certainly have better houses; more attention is being paid to ventilation, drainage, and other sanitary improvements; according to the life statistics of the present day, actually four years are added to adult life, due, it is considered, entirely to our improved sanitary knowledge; and there can be no doubt that one great factor in personal health is "the frequent and thorough cleansing of the whole surface of our bodies."

I have endeavoured to show you that the principle of thermal and medicinal baths was fully understood by all the great nations of the world, and to these they were no doubt indebted largely for the excellence of their public health, which ceased as soon as bathing,

through various causes, fell into disuse. These are obvious historical facts, which all who have any ideas of self-preservation, and have at heart their own and the public health, would do well to bear in mind. The microscopical and pathological science of the present day has taught us much about disease that was hidden from our forefathers.

The Romans, who were renowned for their luxurious and beautiful baths, prided themselves greatly on their skins, especially the women. Why should not we do so ?



Baths act on and through the skin, and I will briefly touch upon the action of the bath upon the skin generally, before I show you the special value of the various kinds of baths. The structure and functions of the skin have now been minutely and accurately explained to us by means of the microscope, and we learn that the skin is composed of several parts. The outer or scarf-skin is being constantly cast off from our bodies in minute scales ; but these, instead of falling away from our bodies, are retained on the surface by the perspiration, and become mingled with the perspiration, which unites them, forming a thin crust,

attracting all sorts of particles of dust and foreign matter from the air, so that the whole body in the course of the day is covered with these particles ; the consequence of which is, the pores of the skin become blocked up and its respiratory action prevented. In the second place, the skin must become irritated and damp and cold from the attraction of saline particles, and if any poisonous gases or infectious vapours find their way into the skin, they will find a suitable medium for transmission.

If, therefore, the pores be choked up, the elements of the transfused fluids will be thrown upon the system, and consequently removed by other organs than the skin, *i.e.*, by the lungs, kidneys, and liver. Thus it must be obvious to us all that habits of uncleanliness become the cause of consumption and other serious disorders of vital parts, and cutaneous eruptions and diseases of all kinds may be contracted.

With such grave considerations as these before us, bathing and washing become a necessity, and need no further argument.



With regard to the water we bathe in, it necessarily should be *pure*, and is spoken of

as hard and soft. The softest water is distilled water, then river water, and lastly spring water. Hard water may be known by its property of curdling soap, but it may be rendered soft by adding to it a little potash or bicarbonate of soda. *The softer the water, the better it is for the skin.*

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Water has a natural repulsion for the oily matters given off by the skin. Soap, therefore, is necessary for their removal, and renders them easily soluble in water, hence it is an invaluable agent for purifying the skin. It is indispensable indeed, for no other substance is so effectual. I shall not here enter upon the comparative merits of different kinds of soap, for the names and kinds advocated are without number. The purest and best only are safe.

There is no reason why a little soap should not be applied to the face, although there is a very common impression among the profession as well as the laity that it should not be used there—that is, while soap is acknowledged to be useful and necessary to the skin of every other part of the body, on that of the face alone, which resembles the rest of the surface in construction, the popular belief is that it should never be

allowed. This is probably due to the possible annoyance caused by the soap getting into the eyes unless care be used. In direct opposition to this idea may be placed the fact that, in the treatment advised by most dermatologists where the sebaceous glands are disordered, as in seborrhœa and acne, great reliance is placed upon solutions of what is known as *sapo viridis*, a potash soft soap imported from Germany, whence this treatment originated, or even in the rubbing in of this soap itself.

There are very great differences in soaps, and in their effects upon the skin, and as familiar extremes may be mentioned, on the one hand, the common yellow, bar, or washing soap, and coarse soft soap, which are stimulating and very irritating to many skins, and, on the other, some of the best class of toilet soaps have little, if any, effect on the healthy skin except that of cleansing.



The requisites of good soaps are: Firstly, that they shall not contain too much alkali or spirit, nor too little, just enough to saponify the fat, neither more nor less; secondly, that the fat from which they are made shall be good, pure, and sweet. For in the refuse

sometimes employed for soap making we may find decomposed matter; and cases are on record where pus globules were actually found in a soap, which had caused and kept up a skin disease; and in another instance minute spicula of bone were found microscopically in soap, which had produced an eruption on the face each time it was used for shaving. Thirdly, good soap must be perfectly mixed or, by preference, *boiled*, in order to produce the chemical process called saponification. The latter may be produced, to a certain degree, by cold mixture aided by pressure, but to make the *best* soap long-continued boiling is necessary. Fourthly, a good soap should be as free from extraneous substances as possible. Many of the cheaper soaps have clays and earths mixed with them to increase the bulk and reduce the cost; many are coloured green, blue, red, etc., often with materials of very questionable value, and are scented with strong perfumes of irritating character.

For all these reasons a good soap cannot be cheap, and great caution should be used to avoid those which are thrust upon the market, either as being very cheap or which are wrapped up showily, as these are pretty certain disguises for poor material.

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A word may be added in reference to the so-called "*medicated soaps*," whose number and variety are legion, each claiming virtues far excelling all others previously produced.

The recounting of the varieties and virtues of these soaps would soon tire. The healthy skin cannot be improved beyond health, and the diseased skin cannot be restored to health by any possible combination used in the form of soap that is employed by the laity.

There is another class of soaps, largely advertised and freely used, which might be styled "*the soothing soaps*." As examples of these fancy soaps we have glycerine, honey, mallow, oatmeal, lettuce, and almond soaps, together with a host of others. Now these again are liable to adulteration, being too often made by unknown and irresponsible parties. At their best they can only be called harmless (but indeed they often are not that), and are in no way superior to a perfectly pure, carefully prepared soap without these supposed healing additions. In other words, soap is not and cannot be made healing, and where a healing application is required, it certainly should not and cannot be in the way of soap.

In regard to the actual use of soap to

the healthy skin, not a doubt can exist as to its value, for the greasy secretion and epidermal *dèbris* of the skin can only be removed by this means, together with good friction. But, on the other hand, too frequent use of soap can, and frequently does, together with the water employed, cause actual disease of the skin. As an example of this we have what is known as the "washerwoman's itch," a distressing form of eczema of the hands, which is well-nigh incurable as long as the washing is persisted in.

As to the use of soap on the diseased skin, there is in general far more chance of doing harm with it than there is of doing good; for, while cleanliness is valuable or essential for health, too much washing can do much harm to many, if not most, skin diseases.

The most common example of error in this regard is in the eczema of children—milk-crust or tooth-rash, as it is sometimes called—where the mother will wash and wash the eruption in vain, using this and that soap in the hope of healing that which cannot heal while a denuded and raw surface is continually deprived of the covering which is formed for the protection of the soft tissues beneath. The same is constantly done with certain ulcerating affections, such as varicose

ulcers, where cicatrisation is impossible if the newly-growing, delicate, epidermal formations at the edges are removed by soap and water. These are but instances which might be multiplied, so that it may safely be said that the introduction of so many soaps has produced infinitely more harm than good.

In eczema of the scalp, both of adults and infants, I have seen the disease prolonged and spread, time after time, by the unwise eagerness to wash. In these I advise the parts to be washed only by rule, that is, each time by special direction; perhaps in some cases it may not be permitted more than once a week, and then the part is to be rapidly dried, and the ointment or other dressing to be instantly applied. This is to form an artificial protection before the surface has had time to make its own protection in the way of an exudation from the surface. In this, as in most other rules of health, extremes should be avoided.



As regards the frequency of ablution, the face and neck, from their necessary exposure to the atmosphere and the impurities which the latter contains, cannot escape with less

than two washings in twenty-four hours; the feet, from the confined nature of the coverings, require at least one; the arm-pits, from their peculiar formation and secretions, one; the hands and arms as many as refined taste may dictate.

Now, how to wash the face—few do it properly. Fill the basin two-thirds full of fresh water; dip the face in the water, then the hands; soap the hands, and pass them with gentle friction over the whole face, for there is no washing-glove like the hands; dip the face a second time, and thoroughly rinse it. A little lemon-juice adds very greatly to the effect of this washing upon the skin of the face when added to the rinsing water.

To dry the face a moderately soft towel should be used; a very rough towel is not desirable, nor a very thin one. A coarse towel will often produce excoriation on a tender skin. Such, then, is washing as intended for the purpose of cleanliness, but nothing is more refreshing than a thorough ablution, for as Thomson, in his poem on the "Seasons," has it—

"Even from the body's purity the mind
Receives a secret sympathetic aid."

The wetted sponge is one of the simplest and

best methods of applying water to the skin of the weakly and delicate, and one by which the smallest extent of surface is exposed. The whole body may in this way be quickly subjected to the influence of water, and to the useful process of consequent friction. A person of weakly constitution should commence a system of daily ablution in spring or summer, and by the winter he will be able to endure cold water without inconvenience; but this even should never be done without the doctor's sanction.

The second form of ablution is by means of the sponge bath; the same precautions should be taken with this bath as the preceding as to the temperature and the constitution of the patient. Those who wish to pass the short time of life in good health ought often to use cold baths. I can scarcely explain to you how much benefit may be had by taking cold baths with care. For they who use them (although perhaps growing old), have a strong pulse and a high complexion, are active and strong, their appetite and digestion are good, and all their natural actions are well performed. As Sir John Foyer says, "They reach the very soul of the animal, rendering it more brisk and lively in all its operations."

Of the shower bath I shall not say much ; it is only suitable for very vigorous constitutions, and should be advised by medical men with the greatest care.



The swimming bath, both in salt and fresh water, taken at suitable times of the year, is one of the most healthy and invigorating of all kinds of bathing, especially to the young. Fathers and mothers should have all their children, girls as well as boys, taught to swim.

There is one popular error about swimming in salt or fresh water—*the young are apt to stay in the water too long*. I have seen serious results occur from this.



When the cold bath is disagreeable to the sensations of the skin of the bather, it may be raised in temperature to taste, *viz.*, to 75 or 85 degrees, to suit his feelings. It then alters its character—to the temperate, 75 to 85 degrees; tepid, from 85 to 95 degrees; warm, 95 to 98 degrees; hot, 98 to 105 degrees. To those who have passed the middle period of life, have dry skins, and begin to emaciate, says Darwin, “The warm

bath for half an hour, twice a week, I believe to be eminently serviceable in retarding the advances of age."



The vapour bath, or Turkish bath, so valuable in many disorders of the skin, is next in order of precedence. The bather is seated in a chair, or sits in a hot room, and the vapour is turned on gradually from 90 to 110 degrees. The vapour is breathed, and is thus brought into contact with every part of the lungs. The first sensation is one of oppression, with some slight difficulty of breathing; but soon the perspiration bursts through the pores and all becomes agreeable; the perspiration rushes out on to the skin. From this the bather goes into a tepid bath, remaining there for ten minutes. The bath is then quitted and the bather dried with warm towels. Sometimes cold affusion is added to this by the advice of the medical attendant.

With reference to cold bathing, Sir George le Fevre makes the following judicious caution : "*Do not wait until the body becomes cold before you plunge into the water.* It is in this stage that there may be danger, for the external excitement has passed away, and

the body cannot resist the depressing influence of cold."



Now, with regard to the physiological effects of bathing. When the body is moistened with the sponge or wetted with cold water, the skin immediately shrinks and all its tissues contract; as a result of this contraction the blood is thrown back on the internal organs and nervous system, which are stimulated by this flow of blood, causing a more energetic action of the heart and the blood-vessels of the skin. *This reaction is the prime object of all forms of bathing, and upon it depends the healthy action of the skin.* In order to increase this reaction various methods and manipulations are resorted to. The operation of shampooing is a good one; as in the Turkish bath, many an imaginary ailment and stiffness of body or limb, many an eruption of the skin, is caused to vanish by this means, when aided by skilful treatment. Indeed, in my experience, many so-called incurable eruptions will yield if treated rationally and carefully.

Baths, in the ordinary acceptation of the word, are the immersion of the body in a medium different from air, which medium is usually common water.

Bathing has served both for cleanliness and pleasure, and has been practised by almost every nation.

The richer Romans used every variety of oils and pomades (*smegmata*) ; they scarcely had soaps in those days. They used flowers of lentils, as used at the present time by Orientals. The most important instrument used was the *astragallus*, a curved piece of metal used as a *scraper*.

It is generally supposed that water acts on the system by being absorbed by the skin. This question has been frequently discussed, but the great majority of observers believe that under ordinary circumstances little or no water or medicinal substance is absorbed into the system—it is merely a stimulant action imparted to the skin.

The powerful influence of water on the capillaries of the skin, and the mode and extent of that operation, depend upon the temperature of the fluid in which it is immersed.

Baths have, therefore, to be considered according to their temperature. The skin bears changes of temperature of air better than changes of temperature of water. For instance, air at 75 degrees is perhaps too warm for the feeling of many, but a continued

bath at that temperature is cold and depressing; in like manner, a bath of 98 to 102 degrees acts as a stimulant, for, being a good conductor of heat, it suffuses the perspiration. A temperature a few degrees below blood heat can be borne longest without any disturbance to the system.

Cold baths act by refrigeration, and their effects vary according to the degree of temperature.

The effects of a cold bath at about 50 degrees are diminution of the temperature of the skin and of the tissues beneath; the blood rises in temperature to nearly 4 degrees, soon subsiding, that is, after the bath has been taken.

At first the surface becomes pale, and its vessels contract. Then there takes place a reaction, bringing redness to the surface and increase of temperature. Very cold baths, *i.e.*, below 50 degrees, cannot be borne long.

We should not lower the temperature of the skin below 9 degrees, as a further reduction may prove fatal.

The effects of hydropathy depend upon the power of abstracting heat from the body, and of stimulating it by the application of cold water. Under the process of hydropathy

the system is subjected to periods of excitement and rest. That is, persistent lowering of the temperature of the body, with capillary contraction and anaemia. This is succeeded by a period of reverse or local hyperæmia, accompanied by excitement of the vascular and nervous systems, and the processes of absorption and excretion are stimulated, with increase of perspiration.

We now consider the effect of warm bathing at different temperatures.

Tepid, 85 to 95 degrees. The bath at this temperature is only confined to the surface, or the peripheral extremities of the nerves, and does not extend to the central system, and consequently can be borne an indefinite time.

Warm baths, from 95 to 100 degrees. In these the heat is propagated from the surface to the central system, causing reaction and increased surface circulation, giving slight stimulus for the renewal of tissue.

Hot bath, from 102 to 110 degrees. Here the central circulation and nervous system are more affected. The skin is congested, and the retained heat bursts out in perspiration.

A very hot bath, about 110 to 119 degrees, almost scalding, cannot be borne many

minutes, causing violent reflex reaction on the heart and circulatory system.

Vapour baths produce profuse perspiration and action, cleansing the skin. They do not act so rapidly on the skin as the warm bath, and consequently can be borne longer and hotter; but a higher heat than 122 degrees cannot be borne comfortably.

Hot air baths differ from vapour baths in not impeding the respiration, and these baths, again, induce more perspiration than the vapour baths.

Vapour baths, hot air, and many hydro-pathic processes agree in producing violent perspiration. Of perspiration: It is sensible and insensible; three ounces may be considered to be about the average thrown off in twenty-four hours, consisting chiefly of water.

In comparing the general effects of hot and cold bathing, it may be said, while the former tends to check the perspiration the latter favours it. It is said that cold baths, by the reaction they promote, increase the action of the gastric and other fluids of the stomach and alimentary canal, and warm baths rather serve to retard it.

As regards the use of baths simply for the promotion of health, it follows from what I have said that warm baths are best suited for the delicate, the very young, and the old; cold baths for the strong and robust, when the powers of reaction are unimpaired.

Warm baths, according to their degree of heat, are useful in calming the nervous system, in neuralgia, in rheumatism, and gout, especially sea water or natural salt baths.

Turkish baths are useful in the latter affection, and whenever it is desirable there should be more free action of the skin.

Cold baths, again, are useful when the skin and system require tonics, and it can bear the shock of cold affusion.

Baths often produce injurious effects when used injudiciously. Long-continued warm baths are soporific, and have often caused drowning by this action.

The effects of too hot baths are swimming of the head, vomiting, fainting, congestion of the brain, and apoplexy.

It is, therefore, very evident that much caution should be used by people of weak hearts in not taking their bath too hot. Stout people and those disposed to epilepsy should not take them too hot.

The risk in cold bathing is congestion of

the internal organs, as often indicated by the lips and fingers turning blue; extremely cold baths should therefore be interdicted when there is a tendency to internal congestion, and they are always dangerous when the system is exhausted by fatigue.

The warm bath causes swelling and congestion of the capillaries of the surface in the first instance; when the stimulus is withdrawn the contraction takes place. A cold bath, again, first causes contraction of the capillaries of the surface, which is followed by their expansion when reaction sets in.

The reason why a man feels refreshed by a hot bath, when exhausted, may be that the increased heat conveyed to him by the warm bath helps the process of oxidation, and thus relieves the system.

Cold refreshes by exciting the functions, heat by physically relieving their action. The general result of these comparisons would show that warm are a milder remedy than cold baths, and are applicable often when the system does not possess power of reaction sufficient to make use of the latter expedient.

Now as to a few words of advice.

Whenever it is possible bathing should be over before 1 o'clock p.m. Never bathe

when the stomach is loaded with food, or after much stimulants. The shorter the bath is, especially when cold and the bather cannot swim, the better—say five minutes. If he or she can swim, then fifteen or twenty minutes is quite enough.

Bathing should *not* be practised *more than once a day*; when the body is very hot, not exhausted, it is advisable to bathe at once, not to cool. Care should be taken after vapour or hot air baths not to get cold.

The baths we usually prescribe in certain eruptions of the skin are the vapour and the simple medicated warm bath, which can be made to resemble in character most of the natural mineral waters. These baths admit not only of having the temperature raised or depressed at pleasure, but can be medicated with various drugs according to the nature and requirements of the case. They are used chiefly for the purpose of bringing about a healthy action of the skin, relieving irritable conditions, and allowing the more thorough application of drugs.

The simple vapour bath is a very valuable adjunct in many eruptions of the skin. The bather is seated in a box (the cabinet Turkish bath) on a chair, or on a cane-bottomed chair,

surrounded by a blanket, with a spirit or gas condenser under the seat. The temperature can be raised or lowered at will from 90 to 110 degrees.

The Turkish bath is much the same in its process of action. The bather may remain in the bath twenty minutes to half an hour.

Having now recounted to you all the various methods of diet, clothing, and bathing, which I know to be the best to promote a good complexion, it is our duty, I venture to say, to take care of our skins, as we value the treasure of a good complexion and a healthy skin.



CHAPTER VI.

The Care of the Hair.

FROM time immemorial the beauty of the hair on woman and man has been the theme of poets and philosophers. Ovid said, "As the tree without leaves or a field without grass, so is the head without hair." Sir W. Davenant quotes : "Beauty in man or woman is a gift divine: yet the crowning beauty is the hair, lacking which there is no true perfection." A vast amount of scientific research is being devoted at the present time, and many very interesting experiments made, with the object of gaining more knowledge and a better insight into the pathology of the diseases, and causes of baldness.

Is it not a time of grave anxiety to all men and women when first the signs of grey appear in the hair, and their beautiful tresses begin to get thinner and thinner, the harbinger of a new era in their lives, which bids them seek relief from dull care ?

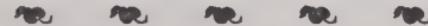
Diminished growth, or baldness, may be classed under three heads—hereditary, accidental, and normal (as in old age). These heads again may each be divided in two degrees—partial and general.



Hereditary.—This form is somewhat rare, and is seen as downy hairs, which, although they prove the presence of bulbs, are in an inactive condition.



Accidental.—PARTIAL, as in ringworm and other parasitic eruptions, scars from wounds, cancer, etc. GENERAL, from causes that lower the vitality, such as anaemia, fever, gout, neuralgia, much study, great emotion, indigestion, want of attention and cleanliness, eruptions of the scalp, enervation, tight hats, etc.



Normal.—This loss of hair is attributable to old age. When the hair is quite gone, this state is named alopecia, or baldness.



Parasitic eruptions and diseases of the hair are the common causes of localised

baldness. Senility, want of attention and cleanliness, and severe mental emotion produce large tracts of baldness. Total loss of hair is sometimes seen in youth. In some cases it comes out as a general thinning, by handfuls, until it has all come off ; probably a failure of nerve force is the cause. But these forms of baldness are mostly remediable ; not so some of the commoner varieties that I shall mention later.



Senile baldness is due to atrophy of the structures, and generally commences on the crown of the head, the hair first turning grey. The skin of the scalp, which is dry skin only, loses its nourishing fat, and the follicles become obliterated. The change is usually an hereditary peculiarity, some people getting bald early—and it is in the common causes of this early baldness we are more particularly interested—some not until late in life.



General thinning of the hair is, as I have said before, due to diseases of the skin of the head interfering with its growth, and to conditions which lower the vitality of the

person ; also splitting of the hair is brought on by the same causes and want of moisture.



Among the commonest causes of premature baldness we have therefore :—

- (1) Old age, or senile decay of tissue.
- (2) Certain eruptions of the scalp, the commonest of which are pityriasis, eczema, and seborrhœa.
- (3) Want of proper attention, cutting, and cleanliness ; the wearing of, or too long wearing of, tight hats.
- (4) Mental emotion and neuralgia.
- (5) Parasitic affections.



This departure from the standard of health, either of a general or local nature, may be acquired by a general lowering of the vital tone, and consequent ill-nourishment of the existent hairs, and the non-formation of new ones, consequent on exhausting illnesses, such as fevers, or sedentary habits. This latter cause, together with the wearing of the abominable tight hat, or "chimney-pot," as it is called, I firmly believe is the commonest cause of our young men losing their hair so very prematurely as they do at the present

time. The direct causes are the local structural diseases and inflammatory diseases, the commonest of which are pityriasis, eczema, and parasitic affections.



Amongst the most frequent causes of the premature falling-off of the hair in women are child-birth, fevers often attendant thereon, general derangement of health, especially succeeding to grief or severe domestic affliction.



The baldness of old age shows itself by permanent loss of hair and general atrophy of the tissues of the skin. It is situated on the crown of the head; generally the hairs turn grey and become thin and dry, and are cast off slowly, not to be replaced. It affects men more frequently than women. I cannot say why, unless it is by their domestic pursuits women's hair becomes stronger.

The condition of the hair in senile baldness is found to vary; it usually consists, however, in well-marked atrophy of the follicle of the sebaceous glands, and of the skin itself.

There are certain cases reported of persons being born without hair; this is *congenital baldness*, but it is exceedingly rare, and there is generally some hereditary predisposition associated with it.

We now come to *idiopathic premature baldness*. This is a process of baldness either extending rapidly in weeks or months, or through a number of years. This affection rarely shows itself in juveniles. At first only a few hairs are cast off, then these are replaced by fine down; this in turn is cast off, when total baldness results. Sometimes the disease may be arrested in its growth, and normal hair produced for a period, but the growth is not permanent; and, sooner or later, permanent baldness results. It generally shows itself about the crown of the head. The cause of this is increase of the connective tissue of the scalp, binding down the tissues beneath, and so exerting a destructive compression on the roots of the hair. Here it is that the pernicious use of the tight, unventilated hat comes in as a cause of compression, so that the nourishing blood supply which goes to feed the hair bulbs is cut off from the skin. The scalp is covered with a beautiful network of these small arterials and veins; therefore even

slight pressure against the bones of the skull produces a temporary paralysis of these vessels. And the hatter takes care that every portion of the skull is fitted accurately by means of his "conformator," so that the hair does not get a chance of life. The circulation becomes sluggish round the hair follicles and bulbs—a consequent impairment of nutrition and so atrophy. We may see for ourselves the red mark a hat makes on the forehead; this is congestion. Baldness begins where the circulation is weakest—on the top of the head. It stops at about the level of the hat-band, for below that line the vessels are not compressed.

It is therefore obvious that a soft and loose hat is much better for the growth of a good crop of healthy hair. We have evidence of this in the countrymen, whose heads are the best covered with hair. Also the Blue-coat School boys, who have tremendous crops of hair, and wear no hats at all.



Here we come to those forms of baldness, more or less complete, caused by certain diseases, *local* or *general* in character.

Fevers of various kinds, rheumatic, scarlet, puerperal fever, cause rapid shedding of

hair. Nervous disease, nervous shocks, mental distress, cold, sunstroke, and exposure are known to cause loss of hair. Diseases affecting the sebaceous glands and hair follicles, and seborrhœa, may be regarded as common causes of baldness.



Among the local causes, inflammatory diseases, such as erysipelas, eczema, pityriasis, psoriasis, and small-pox are also fruitful sources of baldness; but in these instances it is a fortunate fact that the hair returns with renewed health. Parasitic alopecia and ringworm, also, are common causes of localised baldness, especially the former, the new hair returning when the parasite is destroyed and the skin restored to a healthy vitality.

One of the commonest and most fruitful causes of symptomatic premature baldness is scurf or dandruff, technically called *Pityriasis capitis* (from *πιτρυπον*—bran) from its bran-like scales. The disease, for it is a disease of the skin of the scalp, is distinguished by an eruption on the scalp of small, thin, white scales, which have all the characters of the epidermic scales. It is unattended with any discharge, and is not contagious, but is often accompanied with intense irrita-

tion, slight inflammation of the skin, burning and itching. It is one of the commonest and one of the most troublesome enemies to the natural growth of hair. The most common variety is that which occurs in infancy, and would seem to be often caused by the too constant use of the hair-brush or tooth-comb—that bane of all nurseries—or too much washing. It is frequently seen in advanced life, and appears as a cloud of dust when the hair is disturbed.

The next in order is *Seborrhœa capititis*, or an augmented secretion of the sebaceous matter on the skin of the scalp. It is also one of the most frequent causes of baldness. The disease is known by the formation of greyish or yellow scales, which are ordinarily seen uniformly distributed over the scalp; sometimes they occur as one or more variously-sized patches.



In these instances the *heat of the sun* is likely to cause it should the hat be left off.

This disease constitutes a most serious drawback to the growth of the hair, as it clogs and pervades its shaft.

I have seen several instances of this disease, one, especially, gradually destroying the

whole hair. A gentleman consulted me, telling me he had had a sunstroke, and dated the commencement of his hair falling off from the time he was struck. His head, or scalp, was loaded with these small, flat, yellow, oily plates or scales, and the hair was falling rapidly.



We then have another common eruption of the scalp—eczema. This disease is usually seen as an eruption of minute vesicles or blisters, clustered together on a red and inflamed surface on the scalp, attended, as well as preceded, by a sense of itching. This disease may be developed on any portion of the body at the same time, but it is especially frequent upon the scalp, and more often in children or elderly persons with gouty diathesis.



It is in early youth that we should especially notice and relieve these affections, as so much depends on a healthy after-growth of hair in adult life. Age is not exempt from eczema of the scalp; it may occur as late in life as seventy years of age. *Gout* is a common cause of this disease. If the disease is allowed to run its course it mats the hair together.

If it continues for a long time, the skin becomes involved, loses its vitality, the hair roots are constricted and injured, and the hair falls out. In such cases the disease is the cause of partial baldness, and is entitled to the name of scald-head. Sometimes it resolves itself into a chronic state of branny desquamation, so often a serious drawback to a healthy crop of hair.

The other most common forms of disease causing baldness are *erysipelas* and *alopecia parasitica*. The former is an inflammatory disease of an acute nature, dependent upon septic inflammation, but it runs a definite course, and is easily amenable to treatment.

I often see and am consulted about heads that are as smooth and denuded of hair as ivory or the palm of the hand. This, of course, is a terrible affliction to the young, especially women.



I have now related to you the most important diseases of the scalp that are the common causes of baldness, but we still have another common cause, namely, neglect in the proper dressing, cutting, brushing, and cleansing the hair and scalp. And what are these diseases I have mentioned to you, often

entirely dependent upon? Why, the neglect of the skin of the scalp and the hair. Dust and dirt are allowed to remain on the skin; they set up irritation, especially in hot weather, when the perspiratory glands are in full action. This perspiration, if allowed to dry on the skin and remain, sets up a fermentative process with the dust and dandruff, and so produces such eruptions as pityriasis, eczema, seborrhœa, etc.

The deduction from all this is, then, that we should be most careful to keep our hair and scalps well groomed if we wish to have a good crop of nice, fine hair.

Then with regard to those other causes I have mentioned, *viz.*, severe mental emotion, neuralgia, anaemia, gout, etc., these come under the province of the doctor, and when we successfully grapple with them—and there are none of them that we cannot cure by careful treatment—we shall restore the hair to its natural beauty again.



We now come to the *uncommon* causes of baldness, those causes which come more immediately under the eye of the Dermatologist.

All those affections of the skin which cause

ulceration necessarily lead to destruction of hair, such as scrofula, tuberculosis, lupus exedens, herpes zoster, and morphæia, kerion, favus, erysipelas, and syrosis.

I cannot here go into the characters and history of all these various diseases; some of them are the grave diseases of life, and are worthy of a work to themselves.



I have seen several instances of ladies losing their hair by the injudicious use of some of the miserable advertised frauds—some of them made known by pictures showing what this or that will do, making hair grow down to the ground in a short space of time. All this is utter nonsense, and merely a speculation of some enterprising people.



As to cutting, I find people do not have their hair cut and trimmed frequently enough, especially women. This is a valuable preventative for falling hair. Men should have their hair cut once a fortnight in summer and every three weeks in winter, and women once a month at least. Short hair suits many men; but why many women have their hair cut short, who have the privilege

of wearing it its natural length, I cannot conceive. What is more becoming in women than to see a fine head of long, beautiful hair ?



As a general rule, the hair should be brushed and combed at least twice a day to keep it in good order ; the more gentle the friction, the more healthy will the skin be, and the less likely will the hair be to fall out. Care should be taken in the selection of brushes. A hard-bristle brush is all very well for a man with a head of hair like a badger, but a nice, long bristle, tolerably soft and yielding, is the best for the heads of most men and women. The machine brush I do not like, as I am convinced it tears the hair out, and as to the efficacy (so-called) of electric bristles or wire brushes, I confess I am most sceptical. The best combs I know are those made of aluminium, as they can be so easily sterilized by boiling in hot water. Properly applied electricity I am in favour of.



Great benefit, no doubt, is derived by washing the hair, but it is not well to do this too often, as it weakens the hair ; about

once a week in summer and once a month in winter is quite sufficient, and care should be taken that the scalp is always thoroughly dried after washing.

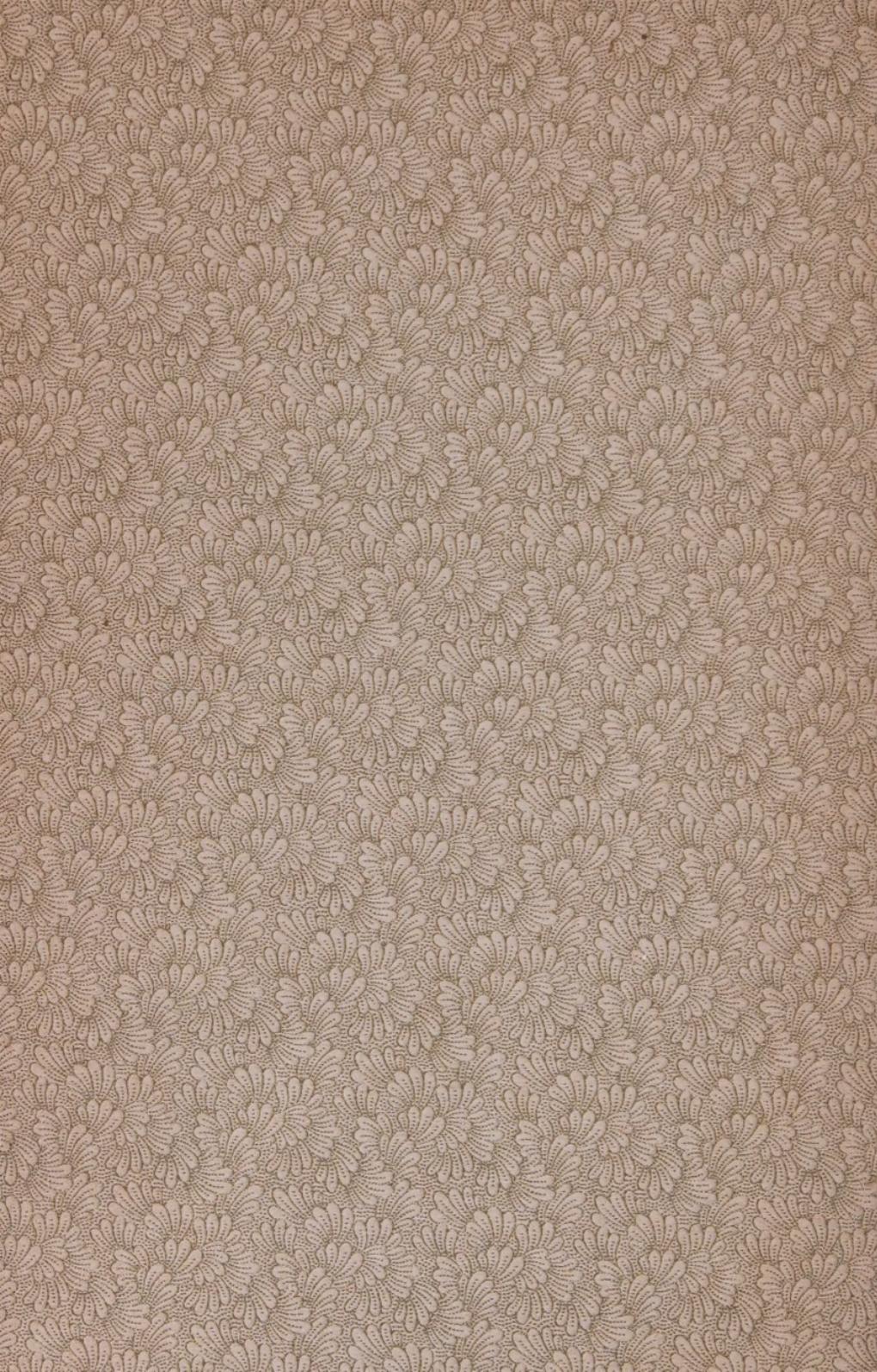
Tepid water, and as soft as possible, is the best for washing the head ; a little bicarbonate of soda or borax added to the water reduces it (*i.e.*, London water) to the required softness, and we should be careful to advise the use of not too strong soaps ; those that have the least alkali and the most glycerine are undoubtedly the best to use.



Before concluding, I give a word of warning which is most seriously required. Always obtain special qualified advice before using any kind of stimulants, washes, cosmetics, dyes, etc., as many of these things used unadvisedly are a common source of *destruction* of the hair instead of restoring it.

It is in the care taken in many of these matters of daily attention, that we may save many a tolerable head of hair from an untimely end, and keep a good complexion.

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